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ABSTRACT

Three studies covering the tourism, chemical industry, and healthcare sectors in the European Union investigated patterns of cross-border mobility at the sector level. Special focus was on transparency of vocational qualifications and the relation between transparency and mobility. A serious lack of information on labor force mobility within Europe was found. Results indicated a low and stable mobility rate within the sectors studied, with the possible exception of the tourism industry. Highly qualified and relatively young males dominated the small group of European citizens crossing borders to work. The tourism sector included a group of young people willing to take low-skilled and low-paid jobs. Current information policies and practices in the European Union (EU) was too unsystematic to release the full potential of mobility. While the role of contact points and coordinators responsible for providing information on application of directives was important, their ability to react to direct questions from users was less developed. Actual contact with the coordinators was far more difficult than expected and highlighted the importance of upgrading information, especially Web sites. Discussion was growing at the sector level on the need for common European qualification standards and certificates. There were strong signals of a waking interest in increased

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transparency of vocational qualifications all over Europe. (Contains 24 references.) (YLB)

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Mobility and transparency of vocational qualifications

An overview of studies on the tourism, chemical and healthcare sectors in Europe

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Sten Pettersson
Greg Richards
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Cedefop Reference series; 14

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Foreword

This report summarises and discusses the main findings of three studies on the transparency issue and its relation to mobility in three different sectors of the economy – tourism, chemical industry and healthcare.

The studies were launched as one of several measures to support the work of the European forum on transparency of vocational qualifications. The forum was set up in late 1998 by a joint initiative of Cedefop and the European Commission to explore and propose ways of removing obstacles to mobility due to lack of transparency of vocational qualifications. The forum was established to add value to the work of existing institutions and bodies. The forum adopted an experimental approach where working methods would be developed gradually and consensus building was emphasised.

The European forum has drawn up several recommendations to increase transparency of vocational qualifications across Europe. One is to establish the issue of an additional certificate, a certificate supplement, based on a common European format to describe the qualifications of certificate holders. Another is to designate one national reference point in each Member State responsible for providing information on national vocational qualifications. They would be the national partners in a European network of reference points. In addition, several support measures have been considered necessary, including means for quality assurance and a multilingual glossary of key terms, to enhance coherence between national systems and to facilitate translation tasks. A common European format for CVs has also been discussed.

By publishing this summary report Cedefop hopes to contribute to the development of discussions on the transparency issue and the relationship between mobility and prerequisites for mobility. As the studies show, there is still a lack of crucial information needed to take both discussions and actions further.

Thessaloniki, March 2001

Stavros Stavrou

Deputy Director

Sten Pettersson

Project Manager

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1. Introduction

Qualifications acquired in one Member State of the European Union are not automatically recognised by other Member States. This applies in particular to vocational qualifications. This may threaten the formal right of European citizens to mobility. Because of lack of detailed and empirically-based knowledge on this link, we initiated three studies, covering tourism, the chemical industry and the healthcare sector, to deepen our understanding of the processes involved, identify current obstacles and suggest remedies.

The right of European citizens to live and work in other Member States is fundamental to the achievement of full economic union and social integration. Freedom of movement gives citizens greater opportunities to develop skills and experiences and avoid unemployment. It allows firms to recruit from across the EU, which is potentially of most benefit to industries with skill shortages or high skill requirements and also the services and social work sectors.

Traditionally, labour force mobility has been seen as a consequence of economic push and pull factors. Unemployed people move to a country or an area where there are jobs. A couple of decades ago, mobility in Europe was dominated by people moving from south to north, thus leaving rural locations in favour of urban and industrial zones. Since then, however, the pattern and character of mobility seem to have changed or are changing. The complexity of the issue has obviously increased. No longer are there clear movements in certain directions. Instead, mobility tends to be more temporary, cross-border based and steered by competence or skill factors rather than pure labour market forces such as unemployment. There are also indications of increased mobility within services and in high-skill manufacturing resulting in a more complex pattern of movements.

Behind the promotion of mobility at political level, there are economic arguments as well as ambition to support the European integration process.

The three studies summarised and discussed in this report aim at shedding light on the patterns of mobility at sector level and some of the barriers individuals face when moving from one country to another to work. Special focus is placed on transparency of vocational qualifications and the relation between transparency and mobility. We only touch upon other important factors such as different pension systems, taxation, social security systems (which differ between countries) as well as the basic issues of housing, linguistic and cultural barriers. Transparency of qualifications is a crucial factor and according to experience, a problem for individual job-seekers. It is also relevant to 'new' mobility within the Community where transferability of competences will probably become more and more important for

lifelong learning individuals as well as for companies and regions. Or, as quoted in the first policy report of Cedefop ([1]):

'... the lack of a generally recognised set of qualifications represents a significant obstacle in many cases to access to jobs. It reduces the ability of people to move between jobs and sectors of activity, if they are capable, with a reasonable amount of vocational training, to make the change and is therefore liable to slow down the structural shifts in activity which are an inherent feature of – and a condition for – economic development (p. 100).

... Despite the removal of administrative barriers, the problem surrounding the understanding of qualifications is one of the most important ones. It is also perhaps the most intractable, because of the deeply-rooted nature of national education and vocational training systems and the key role they play in defining the structure of societies and determining the position of each individual within this, and one which individuals by themselves can do very little to overcome (p. 101).'

Historically, barriers to 'foreign' workers have been considerable, and development of the European Union has involved progressive removal of restrictions on EU nationals. The removal of barriers arising from different qualification systems is a key aim. This has not been an easy task because development of the EU has encompassed a period of considerable economic and social change in which qualifications have become more important as a means of gaining employment and for career progression. Therefore, while legal barriers to cross-border movement have fallen, European citizens have increasingly needed a 'passport' of qualifications even within their own Member State.

At a 'legal' or Community level one can distinguish between different phases in the efforts to remove obstacles to mobility building on different rationales ([2]). Each of these can be connected to a certain concept.

The first phase was mutual recognition of qualifications for certain occupations to establish minimum standards concerning duration and content of regulated professions, such as doctors, lawyers and architects. Later, other professions at university level were included, although this facilitates mobility only for a very small proportion of the workforce.

([1]) Bainbridge, Steve; Murray, Julie. An age of learning: vocational training policy at European level. In *Vocational training policy report 2000*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2000. (Cedefop Reference series).

([2]) Bjornavold, Jens; Sellin, Burkart. *Recognition and transparency of vocational qualifications: The way forward*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1998. (Cedefop Panorama series).

The next phase was the setting up of information systems for comparisons between skilled blue-collar and white-collar workers. This has been labelled the comparability approach. Comparability is a more flexible concept than recognition and the use of the structure was in no way compulsory for Member States. A problem with this approach was its complexity and the limited possibilities of adjusting it to a rapidly changing labour market. In reality, few of the target public consulted the information produced.

The third phase introduced the concept of transparency. It was argued that employers and the social partners were best placed to decide if someone trained and qualified in one Member State was able to do the job required by an employer in another. More and better information for employers and trade unions was needed for them to make their own judgements ([3]). Transparency is defined as the degree of visibility necessary to identify and compare the value of qualifications at sectoral as well as regional, national and international levels.

Thus, the debate at European level has moved away from recognition, through the notion of comparability to transparency. Transparency requires qualifications to become more visible and represents a shift in focus away from central regulations towards the need for individuals to provide information on the training they have received and their skills and competences.

In this report we focus on the transparency issue and its relation to the actual situation of mobility in three different sectors of the economy. Not very much is known about European mobility at sector level. Seen from the perspective sketched above, while such information is important, the scale of labour force mobility across borders on a general level is limited. To quote Cedefop's research report from 1998 ([4]):

'... we do not yet know whether we will see any increase in the future. The harmonisation of standards of living in the EU may have contributed to this as may the material and non-material costs as well as real continuing obstacles to mobility. Mobility in international companies and frontier mobility have increased. However, there is very little information available on this.' (p. 199).

The research report also stresses the need for more information:

'Some forms of mobility do seem to be increasing, however, although there is a major information gap in this respect: mobility on the international labour market of international companies and frontier mobility in border regions. Given the impending accession of applicant states, improvements to the information base and analyses of costs and benefits of mobility are urgently needed in respect of the political measure to be taken.' (p. 224).

([3]) Two main Council Resolutions support this approach (93/Cc 49/01and 96/C 224/4) but they have led to few concrete results.

([4]) Tessaring, Manfred. *Training for a changing society. A report on current vocational education and training research in Europe*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1998. (Cedefop Reference series).

The need for improvement of information may also be seen against the 'new' mobility patterns in Europe and the European integration process. The studies on the tourism sector, the chemical industry and the health sector represent an attempt to contribute to the information base on one part of the mobility issue, namely the role (or lack thereof) of transparency of vocational qualifications. The focus on sector level was thought to reveal detailed enough information for (if necessary) concrete recommendations for further development. The aim was to choose sectors representing different prerequisites, thus providing variation to gain a better understanding of the processes involved.

The tourism sector represents an area where many young people work and where 'new jobs' are established. It comprises a wide variety of services in a field where new technology is becoming increasingly integrated. It is also often seen as an entrance for young people to the labour market. Although the industry has a high percentage of microbusinesses, a small number of multinational operators are taking a greater market share. The sector is expanding and one hypothesis is that there is high mobility within the sector and a lot of different qualifications needed, many of them newly established.

The chemical sector ([5]) was chosen because of its character as a well-established and heavy industrial sector. It is also a sector comprising work requiring different qualifications and qualifications on different levels. The chemical industry represents a sector with a high level of complexity with many possibilities for employees with 'foreign' training as well as a field where clear descriptions of qualifications are needed. It is a key industry for European competitiveness and a large employer, accounting for almost 1.7 million employees. Issues of mobility and qualifications are of considerable relevance to the chemicals industry because many companies operate in a number of Member States and it is an innovative and high-risk industry with high skills requirements.

Regarding the health sector, a doctor or nurse should be expected to face some of the same challenges (in terms of diagnosis, treatment and care) irrespective of national context. If language problems and obstacles are solved, one hypothesis is that mobility within the health sector is higher than in most other sectors (public and private) in the European Union. Another factor supporting such a hypothesis is that the health sector has been covered by most political measures aiming at transparency and recognition of qualifications in the European Union. There are, however, large differences both among and within European countries in the supply of healthcare facilities and personnel. Educational systems have a lot in common, but can also differ on important matters. The same title for a professional healthcare employee, for example, does not necessarily imply the same educational background. The diversity of the health profession and the difference between countries in terms of professional

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([5]) Both the chemical industry and the tourism sector are huge and complex fields open to various definitions. In this context the descriptions made by the European Commission and DG III are used. These are published in *Panorama of EU Industry 1997*, Vol. 1 and 2. ISBN 92-827-9304 and ISBN 92-827-9307-9.

as well as education and training traditions, complicates the issue of transfer of professional qualifications. Even when listing the basic professions (medicine, surgery, medical specialities, hygiene, public health, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, nursing, midwifery, medical x-ray techniques and so on), it becomes clear that the situation is complicated and open to controversy.

This report summaries and discusses the main findings of the three studies launched. The text is built to a great extent on the final reports of the three separate studies and reproduces them freely ([6]). In Chapter 2, the framework of the studies is outlined. In Chapter 3, some methodological aspects are discussed and Chapter 4 presents the main results. Finally, Chapter 5 concludes the report.

([6]) Richards, Greg. *Mobility in the European tourism sector: the role of transparency and recognition of vocational qualifications*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2001. (Cedefop Panorama series). Rolfe, Heather. *Qualifications and mobility in the European chemicals industry*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2001. (Cedefop Panorama series). Skar, Mariann. *Labour mobility in the health sector*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2001. (Cedefop Panorama series).

2. The framework

In line with our main interest, this exercise takes its point of departure in a model of thinking where empirical data on the current situation of mobility are contrasted against legal measures at Community level, making it possible to discuss the relation between the two and the factors either stimulating or constraining mobility. This means that two different sets of empirical data were supposed to give explanatory value to a third set, comprising means and tools as well as gateways and processes supporting labour force mobility within Europe. A base or starting point has been that mobility should be promoted, yet there still remains a need for further understanding of prerequisites and possibilities for removing obstacles to be able to carry out proper actions. This should also be seen against the background of trends towards 'new' mobility in the EU, supporting economic development as well as the European integration process.

In a call for tender preceding the launch of the three studies in question, the above point of departure was expressed by the following sketches of four main areas to be covered by the research.

(a) The current situation on mobility.

The first part of the studies should document cross-border mobility within the sectors chosen. If possible, historical trends as well as the current situation should be described. These descriptions should be supplemented by a limited study of the labour market situation in the sector. The supplement may be limited to one or more parts of the sector as defined by *Panorama of EU industry* (see footnote 1). Part(s) should be chosen to cover current issues within the field of mobility and transparency of vocational qualifications and the criteria for choice made explicit.

(b) Policies in the area of transparency and recognition of qualifications.

Using the statistical/empirical issue as its point of departure, the second part of the studies should analyse EU policy (or lack thereof) in the area of transparency and recognition of vocational qualifications in the respective sector.

(c) The link between mobility and transparency of qualifications, systems for the recognition of qualifications.

Although important, it was considered not possible to reach clear conclusions on the link between mobility and transferability solely on the basis of the documentation/analysis in the two parts outlined above. Such a link must be made through the third part; a study of the attitudes and practices of a limited number of relevant institutions and businesses in a selected sample of Member States. Using the statistical part as a basis, cases should be selected in order to illustrate and analyse how formal and informal doors are opened and/or closed for

individuals applying for jobs in a foreign country. This would make it possible to approach the question of how formal regulations as well as others are interpreted and used, and indeed, if they are known to practitioners out in the field. It would also make it possible to identify and discuss the shortcomings of existing arrangements, pointing perhaps to the potential need for alternative and new arrangements.

(d) European standards.

Eventually, and finally, the focus on the link between mobility and transferability and common requirements for competences will raise the question of qualification standards: is it possible to identify common qualification standards within the sector today? If so, at what levels and within which professions? If not, are such standards being sought after or are they being avoided? Is there a difference between the views and attitudes of politicians at national and European levels and practitioners at various levels?

The four areas are interlinked and express a high level of ambition. During the process from call for tender to final reports we have faced certain constraints. The most serious is the lack of good quality data on mobility. There is no proper information available on the number of people moving within Europe to work at sector level! This result was seen early in the process, in fact during the planning stage by the bidders to the call for tender. We will come back to this issue, but it is necessary to state at this point that one of the assumed cornerstones for our endeavours in this research was not as reliable as we had hoped. We have tried to compensate for the lack of easily available mobility data at sector level in different ways, but of course the drawback is not being able to establish a picture on truly reliable and valid empirical data.

In the following chapter we will give a brief overview of some methodological aspects of the studies. More detailed information is available in the individual reports on the respective sectors.

3. The studies - some methodological comments

The aim of the research was to increase the knowledge of the role of qualifications in relation to cross-border mobility in three different sectors – tourism, chemicals and healthcare. The focus was on current patterns of mobility, European policy assisting mobility, and attitudes and practices by institutions and businesses. In essence, the studies were concerned with how policy and practice currently promote or discourage mobility and with how progress can be made.

The sectors chosen differ in many respects. The differences mean a certain amount of variation in methodology of work in the three sectors. Available information is different in each case. This is especially so for the empirical parts of the studies and we will demonstrate that below. Common to all three studies is research done in the field of mobility. All three reports on which this report is built comprise an update on information available through research. Even though ambitions to cover the field in depth have not been met, we can conclude that a wide variety of studies have been presented during the last decade. However, most of them are of a general, theoretical character and to a limited degree of direct practical relevance to the sectors in focus here. There is a lack of 'real' knowledge on how people experience mobility. Exactly what is complicated, what is not? What is experienced as difficult? It is our general impression that empirical research on European mobility still has a long way to go. While theoretically-based studies flourish, empirically-based knowledge of the movement and the reasons for moving/not moving is hard to find.

The most serious problem common to all three studies is the lack of statistics at sector level. Eurostat regularly publishes figures on foreign workers in EU Member States. These are based on various sources - administrative data, social security records and sample surveys. Although not always directly comparable, they provide a picture on long-term developments. Unfortunately, however, it is not possible to make comparisons at sector level by using Eurostat figures (nor by using the Community labour force survey, which although carried out annually since 1983, is based on too small a sample.)

3.1. The tourism industry

Current levels of cross-border mobility of workers in the tourism industry are extremely difficult to gauge with any accuracy since there are no European figures available. Individual estimates of mobility are available from some countries and for some sectors of the industry. In total, more than 60 organisations or individuals have been consulted with connections to the European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) with the support of the European Travel and Tourism Action Group (ETAG) and its constituent European and international associations.

To address some of the shortcomings of the statistical data, selected sectors of the industry have been analysed in more depth to investigate the dynamics of the labour market. With the help of ETAG, surveys of major trade associations in the tourism industry were conducted to gather information on mobility and to gauge attitudes to labour mobility and the transparency and harmonisation of qualifications.

In addition, a number of case studies have been constructed through interviews with tourism enterprises in different EU Member States. Although these interviews are not representative of the situation in the tourism industry as a whole, they do provide useful insights into the current situation of labour mobility.

A specific piece of research has also been conducted into the hotel and catering industry in Dublin ([7]), where high levels of mobility among EU workers have been observed. This research helps to identify patterns of mobility in an area of labour shortage, as well as highlighting many of the issues surrounding mobility and transparency. Also, some sample surveys have been carried out in the Netherlands, Greece, Italy, Sweden and the UK in an effort to gauge the extent of labour mobility in tourism.

To analyse the relationship between labour mobility and the transparency of employment requirements, a twofold approach was adopted. In the first instance all the major industry bodies in the European tourism sector were consulted and asked to submit information they felt to be relevant to the study. They were asked to consult further with their members in individual Member States, so that differences at national level could be identified. European associations were also asked to suggest further respondents useful for the study. This part of the study yielded 20 responses covering all industry sectors.

Secondly, 16 case studies of specific organisations were also developed to examine formal and informal barriers to applicants from foreign countries. The case studies highlight the awareness of those working in tourism to the open and closed doors for foreign workers, and the application of relevant legislation and measures.

On the basis of these case studies, current policies could be examined in terms of their usefulness, and recommendations made for the development of new and alternative policies, which meet the needs of employees and employers.

Because most of the companies interviewed requested that their responses be kept confidential, the names of the organisations interviewed cannot be revealed. The in-depth interviews were conducted in Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the UK. The organisations interviewed were spread across

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([7]) Stocks Jayne. A case study of labour mobility in the hotel and catering sector, Dublin. In *Mobility in the European tourism sector: The role of transparency and recognition of vocational qualifications*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2000. (Cedefop Panorama series, Appendix 1 of the main report).

the different tourism sectors as follows: hotel and catering, six; airlines, three; tour operators, three; travel agents, two; tourist boards, one; and, attractions, one.

Interviews had a standard format to ensure comparability and were conducted via semi-structured interviews. They covered recruitment and training needs, recruitment policies, training provision, human resource policies, opportunities for foreign employees, policies on the recognition and validation of foreign qualifications, policies on language skills and competences, policies on foreign placement students, main barriers to foreign recruitment and future perspectives on mobility.

3.2. The chemical industry

Research within the chemical industry was conducted in three main stages.

First, an investigation of statistical evidence on cross-border mobility and review of literature on mobility in the European Union. Second, an exploration of EU policy in the area of labour mobility and transparency and recognition of qualifications, with specific reference to the chemicals industry. Third, empirical research on the attitudes and practices of 14 employers and a number of institutions representing the chemicals industry.

For reasons mentioned earlier, stage one comprises only data on a general level. No specific data on the chemical industry sector are available.

The main method for stage two was telephone interviews with key representatives of selected businesses and institutions. Because the purpose of the research was to obtain information on practices rather than policies, interviews with businesses were at establishment level. Interviews were conducted with personnel specialists and operational managers responsible for recruitment and staffing. The three main questions of interest at this stage were: (a) which jobs in the chemicals industry are available to foreign nationals? Which are not, and what are the reasons for this? (b) How are foreign qualifications recognised and validated? (c) What are the main obstacles to the transfer of competence and qualifications from one country to another? What are the roles of formal regulations and informal factors?

The research findings based on interviews with personnel managers of 14 chemical and pharmaceutical companies include those under British, French, German, Italian and Danish ownership, in most cases in their main country of operation. The majority of companies were large, and had a strong research base, since this might increase the importance of international recruitment.

A central question of the research was also whether it is possible to identify common qualification standards within the European chemical sector and, if so, for what occupations and levels. This was addressed at each stage of the research.

3.3. The health sector

Due to lack of sectoral data on mobility also in the health sector, national health authorities in some countries in EU/EEA were asked for information. Few had figures, or if they had, few were willing to pass them on. Several instead recommended contact with the European Commission, DG Internal Market. Fortunately, some of the information sought was available at the Commission who also willingly shared it. The figures reported below should, however, be treated with care. First of all, they tend to underestimate the rate of mobility. This is partly because a number of professional groups are not included (short-term migrants are not registered, for example). Many health professionals move or change country for a short period, either filling a vacancy or while waiting for a job at home. These individuals will normally not appear in the figures. There is also a great amount of exchange within the educational system in terms of doctorates or specialist-training, for instance. These exchanges normally last for less than one year and are not counted under the heading of mobility. Further, employers are not always obliged to have papers recognised. If an employer is satisfied with the foreign papers presented, a de facto recognition may take place. If a health professional goes directly to a university or to a professional health education institution where he or she desires to work and gets academic recognition, the employer will hold the same papers as the host country. In either case, the health professional who actually moves will not appear in the figures.

A number of people in various positions within the health sector were interviewed. Information has been collected basically at two different levels - at European Commission level and at Member State level. Some were easy to get in contact with and gave valuable information, while others were impossible to reach.

At national level, different kinds of organisations or bodies provided information. The UK Council for Professions Supplementary to Medicine (CPSM) in London should in particular be mentioned. CPSM is an independent, self-regulating, statutory body. Among the duties it carries out, is the offer of 'State registration' to members of health professions approved by parliament (as falling within the terms of the Professions Supplementary to Medicine Act of 1960). Currently, art therapy, chiropody, dietetics, medical laboratory science, occupational therapy, orthopedics, physiotherapy, prosthetists, and radiographers are included. The boards at CPSM are 'designated authorities' for purposes of the operation of Directives 89/48/EEC and 92/51/EEC.

In an effort to obtain updated information from Member States, faxes requesting information on experiences as well as updated statistical data were sent to all contact points/coordinators of the general directive. A specific question regarding the procedures to be followed by nurses, doctors and veterinarians wishing to have their qualifications recognised was also included. The Internet was also used to test how easy it might be to get access to information on transparency and recognition of qualifications.

3.4. Collective data

The data collected from the three sectors show both strengths and weaknesses. The statistical data are to a certain extent weak and not based on mutual and clear definitions. One example is the definition of migrant: when does a person actually move from one country to another? Individuals staying abroad for less than a year are often missed by the statistics. The same is likely to happen to persons migrating for educational purposes, and in post-graduate cases. At the same time, these weaknesses are balanced because the majority of health professionals have to register to be allowed to perform their occupation. The same applies to the chemical sector, where we have had to abandon our aim to estimate mobility in the industry as a whole. Taking the weaknesses into account, we think that most of the figures on mobility among European workers are accurate enough for taking the issue a step further. Data from interviews and desk research are qualitatively different and do not imply the same problems as the lack of hard figurers on mobility. However, we will restrict our conclusions to possibilities given by the data and will not attempt to take results further than available facts permit.

4. Results

In this chapter we will report on the main results of the three studies. We will follow the structure given in Chapter 2 as far as possible, focusing first on the current pattern on mobility. This will be followed by an overview of (European) policies in the field of transparency and finally linking mobility and transparency.

4.1. Mobility

4.1.1. Mobility - the general pattern

Statistics on mobility show a fairly constant but small movement between Member States which, against expectations, has not increased in the 1990s. The reasons for this are explored in literature on labour mobility and include the narrowing of differences in income which has reduced incentives to migrate along with the substitution of trade for labour m bility (Tessaring, 1998). However, there is very little research on the issue at anything but a general level as opposed to examining mobility in a particular industry or occupation. A possible explanation for this is the limited statistics on mobility which enable only general patterns to be identified.

Table 1. European nationals in the labour force as proportion of national labour force

	1992	1995	1998
Austria	N/A	0.9	1.2
Belgium	1.9	1.6	1.7
Germany	0.2	N/A	N/A
Denmark	0.4	0.6	0.9
Spain	0.6	0.7	0.7
Finland	N/A	N/A	0.6
France	1.6	1.5	1.4
Greece	0.5	0.7	0.6

Ireland	2.5	2.6	4.1
Italy	N/A	N/A	N/A
Luxembourg	4.2	4.0	3.9
The Netherlands	0.8	0.8	0.7
Portugal	0.4	0.6	11.9
Sweden	N/A	N/A	2.9
United Kingdom	0.7	0.6	0.7
Total	0.7	0.8	1.5

Source: Eurostat. Community labour force survey.

Available statistics allow for some general observations to be made. With the exception of Portugal, the entry of each country into the European Union has not resulted in increased migration. Since the 1970s, the number of EU nationals living in other Member States has remained almost static in some countries and fallen in others. Fewer than 2 % of all workers in the European Union are employed in another Member State and in most EU countries the share of EU immigrants is decreasing while the number of non-EU immigrants is increasing.

Some research has identified a trend away from 'traditional' labour migration towards short-term stays for education, training, career development and business. It has been estimated that about a third of all regular EU migrants to the United Kingdom are through company transfers, which may also apply to other Member States. One of the main reasons is believed to be the increase in trade, which has grown at a much faster rate within the EU than trade with the rest of the world. At the same time, difference in levels of prosperity between European countries has become much narrower, reducing the incentive for migration.

The general picture indicates that people who move between Member States for work are predominantly young and male. They belong to a range of occupations but the professions and manual trades (for example, construction) are more strongly represented than those in intermediate positions.

Existing research emphasises the benefits of a mobile labour force, particularly for employers, but also for employees. There is also a down-side to mobility, however, such as the costs borne by companies and the human cost, which includes resettlement and adapting to a different culture. There is also evidence that in some industries or occupations immobility may have particular benefits.

One research orientation gaining international strength, especially in the European context ([8]) has shown that current mobility and migration within the EU/EEA has a knowledge 'bias.' The traditional labour market mobility of the 1950s and 1960s has been dramatically reduced. Instead, an increasing trend towards mobility of specialists, experts, multinational employees, individuals seeking education, etc. is apparent. Whether mobility within the sectors in focus reflects this knowledge bias is an open question. If this is the case, policies towards recognition of qualifications will be of particular importance.

This is the general pattern. There are variations between countries and sectors of course, but the basic information is not detailed enough to permit a more precise picture than the one given above. The remaining part of the chapter will, however, shed some light on certain specifics within the three sectors in question.

4.1.2. Mobility -the tourism industry

Tourism is a complex industry covering many sectors and types of labour functions. This means that labour mobility can operate differently in each sector of the industry and in different Member States of the EU. Tourism has a number of general features which can either stimulate or hinder labour mobility.

Labour mobility appears to be increasing in the tourism industry. In the UK, for example, the proportion of foreign workers in hotels and catering rose by over 100 % between 1966 and 1986. In Germany, the tourism sector employed more than three times as many foreign workers in 1997 as it did in the mid-1970s.

Patterns of labour mobility in tourism have changed over time. In the past, movement of workers from the agricultural sector, particularly in southern Europe, provided a ready pool of labour for the tourism industry within national borders as well as for northern regions of Europe. Specific schemes to import workers from southern Europe during the 1960s led to a dramatic increase of foreign workers in Europe as a whole and the tourism industry in particular. Growth in the foreign workforce slowed considerably after 1975 as European growth rates fell and unemployment rose.

Current tight labour markets, particularly in northern Europe, are producing renewed growth in labour mobility in specific regions of the EU. There are now signs in many cases of labour shortage that there is not enough labour mobility within the EU itself to cater for demand. This is leading to more workers from outside the EU being sucked into the tourism labour market, particularly from central and eastern Europe and from North Africa. In some cases, this search for workers from outside the EU is being conducted by national governments, as we have seen in the cases of Ireland and the Netherlands.

([8]) Werner, 1996; Kristensen, 1998; Fisher and Straubhaar, 1996.

There is no European system for monitoring the employment of foreign staff in the tourism industry. Only a few Member States keep records of employment of non-nationals classified by sector, but even here there is usually no record of origin, or the figures may also include ethnic minorities resident in the country. This means that our estimates of labour movement in the EU tourism sector are necessarily crude, and constitute informed judgements rather than hard figures. Our estimates are presented in the table below in terms of maximum levels of foreign employment for each country.

Table 2. Estimates of foreign employment in tourism in EU Member States

	Estimated maximum % of foreign workers in tourism workforce
Belgium	10
Denmark	3
Greece	3
Spain	5
Germany	25
Finland	1
France	15
Ireland	20
Italy	5
The Netherlands	7
Austria	20
Portugal	3
Sweden	5
UK	20

It should be noted that these maximum figures include all foreign employees, not just EU citizens. The classification of 'foreign' workers in some countries also includes citizens of the country who were born abroad, or members of ethnic minorities, who should not, strictly speaking, be seen as mobile workers.

Extrapolation of the figures in the table would indicate that the total maximum level of labour mobility for the EU tourism sector as a whole averages about 12 % of the tourism workforce, or about 880 000 workers according to the Eurostat estimates of tourism employment. This would mean that the level of labour mobility in the tourism sector is quite higher than in the EU workforce as a whole. It is difficult to estimate what proportion of these mobile workers are from other EU Member States, since none of the available statistics discriminate by national origin. Our own research indicates that about 60 % of the foreign workforce in the EU is probably drawn from EU Member States.

Labour mobility is not evenly distributed across the EU or by tourism sector. Movement of workers is highest for unskilled labour in the hotel and catering sector and lowest for sectors with a greater demand for skilled labour, such as the airline industry. High levels of mobility are found in particular geographical areas where labour shortages are acute, such as London and Dublin.

In general, mobility is highest in northern Europe, responding to labour shortages and a relatively open labour market. Foreign workers are less likely to be employed in southern Europe, where local unemployment is higher and where more restrictive labour policies seem to be operated. The historical pattern of labour flows from southern to northern Europe seems to have been largely maintained.

Our research has identified different types of mobility present in the tourism sector. Because of the international nature of the tourism sector, and because the client, the tourist, moves from one country to another, there is a tendency for many workers to be employed abroad by companies based in their home country. This is not true 'labour mobility' in the sense of this report, since staff are not working for a foreign company, even though they may be employed abroad. The same applies to staff employed in their home country by a transnational enterprise based in another Member State. Airlines, for example, employ a large number of 'foreign' staff, but the majority of these are employed on local contracts in their home country. The indications from our research are that the use of 'posted workers' at higher levels in transnational companies is declining because of the high costs involved.

These different types of mobility are now the subjects of discussions under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). It is widely accepted that growing trade in services will mean more mobility of labour in future, particularly at higher occupational levels. Although the short-term movement of staff posted by their employers in other countries seems to be widely accepted, the ability of workers to settle abroad for longer periods is still a problem for most of the GATS signatories.

In the tourism sector there may be a point at which rising levels of foreign employment meet resistance from employers, because of the perceived expectation of tourists that they will be served by local staff on holiday. This is likely to be particularly crucial for front-desk employees, who often form the greatest source of contact between tourists and the local culture.

4.1.3. Mobility -the chemical industry

We had intended to examine cross-border mobility within the chemicals sector of the European Union, exploring major trends in mobility, variations between countries, characteristics of mobile citizens, including occupation, age and sex. However, this degree of analysis in a particular industry is not possible using current sources of data. Problems include differences between Member States in the way that data is compiled, gaps where one might wish to make comparisons and sample sizes which make statistical analysis at industry or occupational levels unreliable. Research on labour mobility within the EU is therefore hindered by a lack of reliable data.

In the absence of existing data sets, detailed information about movement between Member States can only be obtained through new surveys. A large-scale survey of employers in the chemicals industry was beyond the scope of our research. However, we believed that qualitative research with selected employers would allow us to identify their practices in relation to international recruitment and their experiences and views on recognition of qualifications. Therefore, while our study cannot say how widespread the policies and practices are which we identify, it identifies what are probably the main issues to employers and the range of approaches within the industry. This will be discussed below.

4.1.4. Mobility -the health sector

Statistics on mobility among health professionals are not easily available as is the case with the two sectors we have covered above. Traditional sources like Eurostat and the labour force survey do not categorise health professionals. However the European Commission gathers statistics from the different countries every second year and distributes them. Within the healthcare sector there is most likely a higher rate of mobility than our figures show.

Between 1993 and 1996, a total of 43 809 applicants within the health sector had their papers recognised. In 1997/98, 13 522 applicants in all sectors had their qualifications recognised ([9]). The numbers are not high, yet it is important for each individual to be able to have his or her papers recognised as smoothly as possible. Between 1993 and 1996, approximately 15 % of individuals applying for recognition of their qualifications were subjected to compensation measures, of which 63 % were adaptation periods and 37 % aptitude tests. Around 12 % got a

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([9]) The directives guiding recognition procedures will be discussed in Section 4.2.

negative decision. Physiotherapists seem to move most frequently according to the figures under the general system as a whole.

The following table shows the number of health professionals in Member States who have applied for recognition of qualifications between 1993 and 1996.

Table 3. Total number of applications for recognition of qualifications; health sector personnel in all Member States, sectoral and general directives, 1993 and 1996

	1993-94	1995-96	Total 1993-96
Dentists	425	921	1 346
EFTA nationals	25	7	32
Specialists		16	16
EFTA national specialists		0	0
Doctors	3 545	5 095	8 640
EFTA nationals	122	102	224
Specialists	476	1 633	2 109
EFTA national specialists	23	43	66
Services	283	309	592
Bilateral agreements	534	1 577	2 111
Third country national	7 217	7 307	14 524
Midwives	326	319	645
EFTA nationals	0	3	3
Nurses in general care	3 739	3 470	7 209
EFTA nationals	7	59	66
Paramedics (other health and scientific professions)			0
General cases			0

Chiropodists			25
Chiropractor			10
Occupational therapists			0
Orthopists			1
Physiotherapists			1 578
Psychologists/psychotherapists			222
Radiographers/radiologists			73
Specialist nurse educators			153
Speech therapists			303
Dieticians			44
Occupational therapists			188
Optometrists/opticians			163
Orthopaedic engineer			6
Registered dispensers of hearing aid			6
Chartered biologists			33
Chartered chemists			183
Laboratory technologists			82
Dental hygienists/technicians			32
Physical therapists			102
Masseurs			30
Pharmacists	306	0	306
Third country national	572	0	572
EFTA	0	0	0
Pharmaceutical assistants			6

Social workers			120
Vets	472	0	472
Vets declaration	147	0	147
Bilateral agreements	814	0	814
Third country national	555	0	555
Total per Member State	19 588	20 861	43 809

Source: Directorate General Internal Market (internal document).

As we can see, the number of health professionals who cross borders is low. The total amount of applications for recognition (all qualifications, not only health) between 1993 and 1996 was 53 182. This means that more than 82 % (43 809) of all applications came from health sector professionals. Less than 18 % belong to other professional groups (9 373), these are mainly dominated by teachers. According to data for the period 1997-98 (all sectors in all Member States), a total of 13 522 applications were received. This means that an average of 11 117 applications have been received every year during the period 1993 to 1998. The UK, Germany and France are the countries that receive most foreign workers.

When we take away the sectoral directives (nurses, doctors, dentists, pharmacists, veterinarians, midwives and architects) from 1993 to 1998 the total number of recognition requests granted under both general system directives was 23 224. An analysis of the period 1993-96 shows that of the 12 595 requests granted ([10]), compensation measures were applied in 1 954 cases, or 15.5 %. Of this 15.5 %, 63 % were adaptation periods and 37 % aptitude tests. If we break down the 15.5 %, the relative percentages are as follows: aptitude tests were used in 5.6 % of all cases of recognition granted under the general system and adaptation periods in 9.8 % of such cases. On the other hand, some 1 781 negative decisions were also taken, which amounts to a 12 % failure rate, at least on first attempt. Some 7.13 % of those refused recognition had undergone compensation measures of which some 95 % were aptitude tests. In other words, 6.7 % of negative decisions happened after the migrant had undergone an aptitude test and 0.3 % after the adaptation period. Of all recognition decisions taken, positive and negative, 14.47 % were the result of the application of compensation measures

([10]) This is the most complete figure available.

(report on the application of Directive 92/51/EEC ([11]) to the Council and the European Parliament).

The following tables show figures on mobility for doctors, nurses and dentists, respectively ([12]).

([11]) OJ L 209, 24.7.1992, p. 25.

([12]) It should be noted that the numbers related to the sectoral directives may actually underestimate the number of migrants. Some individuals may have gone directly to university and/or college and had their papers recognised through the academic system. The university/college will then have issued them with papers as if they were educated within the system of that country, making them disappear from statistics.

Table 4. Number of doctors having obtained authorisation to practise in a Member State other than where they obtained their basic qualification, 1981-97

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	Total
1981	13	5	478	129		52	57	17	12	93					546	1 402
1983	19	9	1 018	402		75	35	20	7	45					567	2 197
1984	36	7	989	346		62	34	23	5	54					302	1 858
1985	31			D	F	64	30	21	8	53					332	918
1986	67	6	749	332	49	114	32	23	7	76		15			445	1 915
1987	102	14		290	154	129	25	51	11	92		31			995	1 894
1988	129	16		311	54	157	19	52	11	73		64			1 309	2 195
1990	153	14		256	64	117	43	68	10	57		26			1 020	1 828
1991	182	10		205	51	136	40	79	3	64		26			956	1 752
1993	149	24						58	18	89					1 157	1 495
1995	126	48		101				59	48	60	107		20	71	1 796	2 436
1996		108				1881		40		76	75			57		2 237
1997	149	73		92	203		73	81		161	74		69	80	1 908	2 963

Source: Commission of the European Communities, Directorate General for Internal Market and Industrial Affairs; statistical tables relating to the migration of doctors: 1981, 1983-88, 1990-91, 1993, 1995-97.

The total figures are not reliable because of lack of data, Germany has not supplied data since 1986. There seems to be a slow growth in migration among doctors over the years but because of the low figures it is difficult to say. The figures for 1997 show that the Netherlands have a sudden increase in applications. Of the 161 applications, 95 are qualified in Belgium and 39 in Germany. In the same year, the UK had 1 908 applications, of which 569 are qualified in Germany, 281 in Greece, 239 in Italy and 167 are qualified in Spain. Of Ireland's 73 applications, 55 are qualified in the UK. Austria had 74 applications and of these 69 were from Germany. Finland shows a similar picture; of their 68 applications, 55 came from

Sweden. According to the 1996 report to the Commission, approximately 1.7 per 1 000 doctors obtain recognition in another EU/EEA country.

We have the same information regarding nurses responsible for general care, who are nationals of a Member State and obtained their basic qualification in another, whose authorisation to practise was issued in one of the States mentioned in Table 5.

Table 5. Nurses (general care) having obtained authorisation to practise in a Member State other than where they obtained their basic qualification, 1981-97

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	Total
1981	80	9	132	2		147	535	44	64	63					239	1315
1983	66	10	178	3		278		35	65	56					355	1046
1984	49	12	35	4		329	150	38	71	81					606	1375
1985	41	13	132	5		205		41	101	79					674	1291
1986	74	14	66	8	30	190		31	107	64		3			530	1117
1987	59	8		2	61	188	121	42	129	136		19			1002	1767
1988	48	12		4	54	182	202	51	134	52		64			586	1389
1990	50	18		7	45	293		66	193	92		23			761	1548
1991	61	8		10		1481	534	84	154	134		29			627	3122
1993	77	17		7		410		75	200	70		29			438	1323
1995	58	48		13			590	25		104	108	43	4	40	756	1789
1996		31						42		301	74	40		26	1041	1555
1997	55	30		11	81	186		37		200			5	44	1171	1820

Source: Commission of the European Communities, Directorate General for Internal Market and Industrial Affairs; statistical tables relating to nurses responsible for general care: 1981, 1983-88, 1990-91, 1993, 1995-97.

The movement among nurses seems to be relatively stable even if we see an increase in numbers, relative, no doubt, to the expansion of the EU. In 1991, France had a sudden increase of applications (1 481) of nationals who qualified in Belgium 520, while 298 came from the UK, and 264 from Germany. In 1996, the Netherlands had 301 applications, almost three times more than 'normal' (these were mainly from Belgium 196, from Germany 41 and from the UK 36. The UK received 1 171 applications in 1997 from nationals of: 329 from Finland, 253 from Ireland, 166 from Sweden and 127 from Germany. Of Sweden's 44 applications, 10 came from Denmark, 10 from Finland and 11 from Germany. What is said among the coordinators is that nurses mainly come to a new country because they have

married and moved to the spouse's country. Another interesting comment is that it is mainly the husband who organises the paperwork to request recognition. This can of course be due to language barriers but one wonders whether it has to do with gender or with this specific group of professionals.

Table 6. Number of dental practitioners having obtained authorisation to practise in a Member State other than where they obtained their basic qualification, 1981-97

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	Total
1981	6	2	80	1		20	1	0	5	28					103	246
1983	4	0	62	6		13	14		3	29					78	209
1984	10	0	52	5		3	6	0	4	8					67	155
1985	10	0		4		8	8	26	4	6					72	138
1986	15	1	170	9	3	12		107	7	9		0			82	415
1987	17	5		4	2	11	6	79	5	7		3			79	218
1988	19	0		2	2	29	13	74	2	7		8			95	251
1990	15	1		7		27	15	79	3	6		4			97	254
1991	17	0		1		27	17	88	4	8		15			93	270
1993	11	5		3				62	1	8					112	202
1995	15	15		10				52	6	6				4	229	337
1996		2						40		14	1			4	336	397
1997	18	19		7	98	37	29	28		43	0		2	7	356	644

Source: Commission of the European Communities, Directorate General for Internal Market and Industrial Affairs; statistical tables relating to dental practitioners in the Community: 1981, 1983-88, 1990-91, 1993, 1995-97.

There seems to be a rise in mobility among dentists within the EU/EEA and this is especially noticeable in the UK and Spain. The UK is one of the few countries that has provided the Commission with statistics every year. As we can see a lot of the other countries are difficult to discuss because of lack of data. Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark and Greece seem to have a relatively stable amount of applications every year. Sweden provided the UK with 212 and Ireland 63 of the 356 applications in 1997. Of the Netherlands'

43 applications, 26 were qualified in Belgium. There are supposed to be about 222 090 practising dentists in the EU. If we look at these figures not many are travelling abroad, only 644 in 1997.

Between January 1991 and the end of December 1994, at least 11 000 people obtained recognition of their diplomas in accordance with Directive 89/48/EEC. Of these, 1 450 were physiotherapists (an average of 310 per year or about 1.5 per 1 000 active physiotherapists). However, nearly 6 000 of the total number of diplomas were recognised by one Member State alone - the United Kingdom. The statistics also show that most applicants are successful in obtaining recognition. Negative decisions run at around 5 % of the total number of applications. Few appeals have been made against negative decisions.

Within the healthcare sector there is most likely a higher rate of mobility than our statistics show. Short-term movers, going in and out of the labour market for vacancies or for vacation work do not count. Likewise, health professionals moving for educational reasons for long or short periods do not count Neither is it known what happens to those who commute daily cross-border, maintaining a domestic address in the home country while working in the neighbouring country. How strictly employers follow the need for recognition of diplomas is difficult to say. If an employer has employed from a certain school previously, it is likely that the procedures are not followed so strictly. Procedures followed by public and private institutions may vary considerably.

4.2. The legal ground - Community level measures

Free movement of labour, the opportunity to look for employment in another EU country and to hold it just as any national of that country, has been a reality for the six founding members of the Community since 1968. Free movement of labour in the EEC Treaty means the abolition of any discrimination based on nationality between workers of Member States as regards employment, remuneration and other conditions of work and employment. It now applies to the 15 Member States and the three EEA States. (For a comprehensive overview of the development of vocational training policy at European level, see Bainbridge and Murray, 2000).

The relationship between economic integration, migration and welfare was one of the basic ideas behind the common market, which the European Community began to strive for in the mid-1950s. The right of free movement has been successively extended from the Treaty of Rome in 1957 up to the Treaty of Maastricht in 1992. As the original treaty did not deal with the problem of transfer of qualifications between Member States, a number of political and administrative initiatives have been taken during the successive four decades. These efforts,

aimed at both mutual recognition of qualifications and increased transparency ([13]) of qualifications have, to a large extent, also been implemented in at least one of the sectors dealt with here, that is the health sector.

The following sections will outline the main instruments of political, legal and administrative character put in place to support the transfer of qualifications and thereby support mobility.

4.2.1. Political and legal measures

From the late 1980s, the EU adopted a series of directives to ensure mutual recognition of qualifications, some of which (the sectoral directives) harmonise the education and training which each Member State requires to obtain a professional qualification in the occupation covered ([14]). This was followed in the beginning of the 1990s by general directives ([15]) aimed at general recognition of diplomas obtained through a minimum of three years of study at a university or higher education institution.

Work had already begun on the sectoral directives as early as the 1960s and the strategy was to agree on common minimum requirements which should be adopted and applied by all Member States to arrive at a qualification recognised by all. The first directives came into force in 1975 and covered doctors (updated in 1993). These directives provide for the automatic recognition of diplomas, certificates and other qualifications related to occupations such as medicine and architecture if they fulfil the minimum training conditions that is laid down by Community legislation.

These directives give a minimum standard for what is required of a professional practising in one of the Member State of EU/EEA. The recognition is in principle automatic, but the host Member State can require further documentation on education and training background. A problem faced by the sectoral directives is the rather cumbersome and slow procedures followed. Some directives have taken more than 10 years to establish. Add to this the constant need for updating of minimum requirements (professions are constantly changing) and the inflexibility of the approach becomes evident. This does not, however, mean that the sectoral directives have been wasted energy. Although we have not been able to find systematic research on their impact, it seems clear that mobility would have been far more difficult without them.

([13]) The distinction between recognition and transparency of qualifications should be noted. While recognition implies a *de facto* agreement between the different countries involved to accept each other's qualifications, transparency is a more modest approach whereby the content of a certain qualification is made as visible and transparent as possible making it easier to decide on acceptance or non-acceptance.

([14]) 89/48/EEC.

([15]) 92/51/EEC.

The slow progress made by the sectoral directives led to a search for more flexible instruments. This search was to a certain extent influenced by scepticism towards the harmonisation of standards implied in the sectoral approach. This led eventually to Council Directive 89/48/EEC, outlining a general system for recognition of higher-education diplomas (awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration). The general directives cover all higher academic and professional qualifications.

The introduction of the two general directives ([16]) on recognition of higher education (academic and professional) marked a change in the political and legal approach towards this policy field. The new system had to resolve the conflict between the strong political wish to protect national education systems and at the same time allow European citizens to exercise their rights to move and work throughout the Union. Regulated professions can to a certain degree be looked upon as monopolies defined and controlled by the national education and qualification systems. These kinds of national monopolies conflict with the entire idea behind a free internal labour market. Purely national criteria for the definition and control of qualifications tends to be insufficient in this new economic and political context.

The general system is founded on a single, simple idea: the presumption that if one is qualified in one Member State to exercise a given profession, one should be entitled to exercise that same profession throughout the Union. The system is based on the principle of mutual confidence and trust as to the actual comparability and transferability of qualifications. This does not mean, however, that any qualification covered by these directives is automatically recognised by the host country. If the host country is of the opinion that the qualifications in question suffer from major weaknesses and deficits, additional documentation, testing or training can be required.

Ideally, every application for recognition should be treated individually by the competent authority in the host Member State. In principle, a fully qualified professional in the home Member State who applies for recognition of qualifications to practise that same profession in the host Member State will receive full recognition. However, before reaching a decision, the competent authority will compare the professional education and training received in the home Member State with what is required in the host Member State. If the authority finds that there are significant differences in terms of either length or content, it may, subject to certain conditions, grant recognition conditional to the fulfilment of additional requirements. The additional requirements which can be imposed are either to provide proof of experience,complete an adaptation period or pass an aptitude test in the host Member State. Only one of these three requirements may be imposed - normally the applicant will be free to

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([16]) Directive 92/51/EEC, due to be implemented by 18 June 1994, has been transposed in all Member States. In some, it was transposed later than the two-year deadline laid down in Article 16, which reduces the experience gained in applying it. Spain was approximately one year late, Ireland two years, Portugal and the United Kingdom two and a half years, Belgium three years and Greece four years late. The Commission therefore initiated and pursued infringement procedures.

choose. Member States are required to reply to requests for recognition by way of a decision within four months of presentation of all necessary documents.

During the 1990s, a number of political statements were made concerning the need for increased transparency of qualifications. Two Council resolutions from 1992 and 1996 ([17]), recommend a number of specific initiatives to be taken to make it easier for employers to decide on the content of foreign qualifications. This approach assumes that the multitude of qualifications existing in Europe is a positive thing which should be supported, not threatened by top-down harmonisation efforts. This diversity should, however, be presented in a harmonised and standardised way. This implies that national diplomas and certificates should be automatically translated; that certificate and diploma supplements should seek in the most efficient possible way to present the competences held by an individual and that a visible and well defined European system of information/guiding points should supply additional information support. While gaining political support, little actual progress has taken place along these lines. Somewhat delayed during 1999-2000, initiatives have been taken to push forward these ideas in a more systematic manner.

In conclusion, it should be emphasised that regulation makes a difference to the question of transfer of qualifications. Those professions protected by national law (as the majority of health professions are), seem to be best covered by the political and legal instruments introduced at EU level. The situation will differ for a non-regulated profession, the rules and behaviour of the labour market will normally override legal rulings at national or EU levels. However, even if this is the case, a migrant will still have certain general rights. The authorities of the host country are obliged, under the articles on freedom of movement of the EC Treaty, to take into account professional diplomas and qualification acquired in another Member State, even if the profession is unregulated. There is also reason to believe that the transparency approach indicated above will be of relevance to these groups.

4.2.2. Administrative measures to support transfer of qualifications

All Member States have appointed a national contact point (where applications are received and distributed) and a national coordinator responsible for overseeing the implementation of the general directives. An important role fulfilled by the national coordinator is to ensure uniform implementation of the directives to all professions concerned. In practice they also act as a link between national competent authorities and the Commission.

All Member States have also appointed centres responsible for supporting recognition of academic qualifications. These centres for national academic recognition (NARIC) have been operational for almost a decade and are probably the most firmly established service in the

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([17]) A resolution is legally weaker than a directive; recommending a certain action, Member States are not obliged to follow it.

area. A network has been established at European level, aimed at a coordinated approach to the work and sharing of information related to recognition issues.

Following a Commission initiative, the European Employment Service (EURES) was established in 1994. The aim is to link together national employment services in EU/EEA, thus providing an overall picture of available jobs within the internal market. Partners in the network include public employment services, trade unions and employer organisations (coordinated by the European Commission). EURES was set up to inform, counsel and provide advice to potential mobile workers on job opportunities and living and working conditions in the EEA. They assist employers in recruiting workers from other countries. There are some 500 EURES advisers in Europe. They are supported in their work by an IT system which allows job vacancies to be exchanged between the various public employment services.

The emphasis on guidance, illustrated by EURES, has been further strengthened through the setting up of national resource centres for vocational guidance (NRCVG) within the EU/EEA. Like NARIC, these guidance centres are linked together through a European network, exchanging experiences and seeking common approaches. The guidance centres have received relatively small resources and have thus only been able to fulfil their role to a limited degree.

Reflecting on the poor implementation of the transparency-related initiatives introduced through the Council resolutions of 1992 and 1996, Cedefop together with the European Commission initiated a 'European forum in the field of transparency of vocational qualifications' in 1998. The purpose of this forum (which comprises representatives of national ministries as well as social partners), was to work out a practically-oriented action plan for transparency of vocational qualifications. This plan was presented to the Commission and the Member States in early 2000, and has been integrated into Community policies (namely, new parliamentary and Council recommendation on mobility to be presented autumn 2000/spring 2001). The actions presented are basically those listed by the 1992 and 1996 resolutions, the difference being that measures to secure actual implementation have been taken.

In addition to these specific measures, a series of initiatives to facilitate the free movement of people within the EU and strengthen citizens' rights have been announced. The European Commission, the Council of Europe and Unesco/CEPES established a diploma supplement working party in December 1996 as a joint initiative. Their mandate was to develop a model for a diploma supplement to ease the problems of recognition and promote transparency and international recognition of qualifications for academic and professional purposes. In 1996, the Commission also established a 'high level panel' to examine the practical difficulties encountered by people attempting to exercise their rights to enter, reside and work in another Member State. The high level panel on free movement of persons was chaired by Mrs Simone Veil, and their report of 18 March 1997 contains a series of concrete measures to ensure that more people can take advantage of their right to free movement within the EU. The main conclusion is, that apart from a few exceptions, the legislative framework to ensure free

movement of people is in place, and that the majority of individual problems can be solved without changes in legislation. The green paper on 'Education, training and research: eliminating obstacles to transnational mobility,' is another example that looks at some of the problems and puts forward some ideas for solution. Barriers linked to taxation and social security have been mentioned by everybody working with mobility, but these issues remain unresolved.

4.2.3. The three cases

Formal qualifications are perhaps less important in stimulating mobility in the tourism sector than in many other industry sectors. Many jobs taken by foreign workers do not require formal qualifications, particularly at the lower end of the job market. Very few sectors of the industry therefore operate harmonised qualification schemes at European level.

The need for transparency and recognition of qualifications is greater in certain areas of the tourism industry than in others, for example, tour guides, tour managers and skilled staff in the hotel and catering industry. There is evidence that harmonised qualifications are being developed to deal with some of these specific problems.

The fact that employers are more likely to rely on information gained from previous employers to judge applicants rather than on actual qualifications alone, indicates a need to make information on qualifications more widely available. Unless transparency of qualifications in the EU can be improved, their utility for job applicants cannot be maximised.

The implementation of measures to facilitate labour mobility varies between one Member State and another. Although prospective workers in the tourism industry are covered by the standard agreement that all EU citizens can work in another EU Member State for up to three months without a residence permit, the way in which this system is administered can vary widely. There is evidence, for example of extremely slow bureaucratic procedures in countries such as Greece and France, or lack of help for EU job-seekers from employment services in other EU States ([18]).

This impression is strengthened by comments made by the Italian Department of Tourism (1994) relating to the mobility of labour. Noting that EU directives were moving from a sectoral to a horizontal approach, the report stresses that there is still no harmonised approach to tourism professions and jobs.

This emphasises the problems of applying EU directives to employment in tourism. The directives are meant to operate in blanket fashion, without taking into account the specific needs of different industry sectors. The peculiarities of specific industries are looked upon as

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([18]) Reilly Collins, 1999.

exceptions to the general rule, and exemptions must therefore be sought for particular sectors or occupations. This is in fact what has happened with tour guides. Similar problems have emerged with the employment of tour guides and ski instructors. The fact remains, however, that the directives are difficult to apply evenly in such a heterogeneous industry as tourism.

In practical terms, however, EU directives appear to have had relatively little impact on the tourism sector. There are relatively few areas in which recognition of qualifications appears to be an issue. The weak labour market in tourism means that relatively few jobs require a formal qualification. Most staff are hired on the basis of personal qualities, experience or language ability.

There is little evidence of specific measures to support mobility in the tourism industry apart from those which operate within large companies or specific placement schemes.

Likewise, there are no common qualification standards within the chemical industry in Europe for jobs below degree level. This stems from difficulties in establishing common standards at national level. The only broadly equivalent qualification is PhD, for which similar standards apply across Europe.

No special regulations exist to promote or ensure freedom of movement in the European chemicals industry, although a number of initiatives have particular relevance, including programmes aimed at promoting mobility through the international exchange of students, teaching staff and, to a lesser extent, working people and trainees. These include programmes under the Socrates and Leonardo umbrellas, the training and mobility of researchers (TMR) and Marie Curie Fellowships.

The chemicals industry does not have 'regulated' occupations. This, despite the fact that many jobs require higher education and the industry recruits a high proportion of graduates, particularly in areas such as research and chemical engineering. Some occupations are, however, subject to regulation for safety reasons and many senior staff in the industry are members of professional associations, including chartered bodies.

Organisations representing the industry or chemical professions at European level have recently produced lists of broadly comparable qualifications, an approach, which promotes transparency of qualifications rather than equivalent requirements for specified jobs. The European Communities Chemistry Council (ECCC) has developed schedules of qualification standards at full professional (degree) level, senior technician and junior technician levels (craft or skilled operator).

Relevant, broadly comparable, qualifications are listed for each Member State, along with guidelines on appropriate training courses and job specification with level of responsibility. These establish potentially useful lists of equivalents for employers recruiting from other Member States. Although the schedules list qualifications which are seen as broadly comparable, the approach differs from the comparability approach, which aims at linking

qualifications to specific jobs and therefore establishes direct comparisons. The ECCC's approach promotes transparency of qualifications at specified skill levels.

The ECCC has recently developed a pan-European professional title of 'EurChem,' an abbreviation for 'European chemist' to indicate high level of competence in the practice of chemistry. The ECCC believes that in introducing the EurChem title, chemical societies at European level have met the need for an easily understood title to indicate high competence. In 2000, approximately 700 individuals had the title of EurChem, across all Member States. There are also other activities in progress within the sector supported by the social partners.

Currently, a number of EU directives have direct relevance to the health sector. Referring to the sectoral directives these have been important in defining a common standard for what we may term the basic health professions and cover professions such as doctor, dentist, pharmacist, midwife, nurse responsible for general care and veterinarians ([19]). Yet, as indicated earlier, the number of professions not covered by the sectoral directives is substantial and according to tentative figures of the Commission, stand at more than 80. This does not, however, mean that the sectoral directives, or the general directives for that matter, have been a waste of time. Rather, the directives, these main political and legal instruments, seem to be in place and health sector professionals are the main presumptive users of these instruments.

4.3. Linking mobility and transparency

In this section we will try to link mobility to transparency of vocational qualifications and to measures taken at Community level. Of course there are many factors stimulating as well as constraining mobility. Transparency of qualifications is only one of them. We will focus on the transparency issue but will partly also deal with more general prerequisites facing individuals wishing to work in another country than the country where they were trained.

4.3.1. The tourism industry

Tourism is a major employer in the EU and the demand for labour is increasing. This creates a growing market for foreign workers, particularly in areas of acute labour shortages.

([19]) Council Directive 77/452/EEC of 27 June 1977 general nurses; Council Directive 78/686/EEC of 25 July 1978 dentist; Council Directive 80/154/EEC of 21 January 1980 midwifery; Council Directive 85/433/EEC of 16 September 1985 pharmacy; Council Directive 89/594/EEC of 30 October 1989 doctors, nurses responsible for general care, dental practitioners, veterinary surgeons and midwives; Council Directive 93/16/EEC of 5 April 1993 doctors includes 75/362, 75/363,86/457.

The tourism sector has a relatively weak labour market, which means that it is fairly easy for foreign workers to enter the sector. Tourism may therefore act as a general entry point into the job market for migrants in the EU and play an important 'social insertion' role. Tourism has a high proportion of young workers who are more mobile and more willing to adapt to employment abroad than older workers. Younger workers are also more likely to have the necessary language skills to be able to work abroad.

Tourism is a seasonal industry, which creates a large number of opportunities for temporary work. This is particularly important for tourist attractions serving international markets and for tour operators. The problems of recognition of qualifications and transparency are probably less apparent in tourism than in other sectors because of the large proportion of jobs which require no qualifications.

A unique feature of the tourism sector is that many of those working in the industry also form an essential part of the tourism product itself. Tourism staff are often expected to provide the welcome that visitors expect to receive, and the hospitality, which is also a distinctive part of many national and local cultures. This can present problems for employers wishing to recruit foreign staff, since the basic expectation of the tourist is that locals will serve them. In Ireland, for example, employment of non-nationals may already be undermining the traditional Irish welcome sold to visitors as an essential part of the Irish tourism product.

Employers interviewed also mentioned a number of general barriers to mobility, although these are general labour market issues rather than factors specific to tourism. Most importantly these include administrative barriers to employing foreign workers, including additional administrative procedures and paperwork (sometimes before entering the country), national insurance arrangements and difficulties in opening bank accounts. There are also problems in connection with accommodation especially for employers located in major cities.

Language is the major barrier to worker mobility in tourism. Even with appropriate qualifications it is hard to find employment in customer contact positions, or in positions dealing with written reports or information, without language skills. This means that labour mobility is much higher for back room staff than for front-desk employees.

Qualifications may be a barrier to mobility for certain occupations. Problems are still experienced by tour guides and tour managers who must obtain local qualifications before being allowed to work in certain countries. In many sectors recognition of foreign qualifications is problematic, since foreign qualifications are not automatically recognised. Because many employers prefer to recruit on the basis of experience, qualifications may count for little in the employment process. It is also difficult for most employers to gather information on the equivalence of foreign qualifications, which tends to reinforce their reliance on past experience and personal qualities in hiring staff.

Although for many positions at the lower end of the labour market qualifications are not required, and therefore do not constitute a barrier to mobility, lack of recognition of qualifications may be a barrier to internal promotion for foreign workers. This in turn will

tend to limit their career prospects abroad and will lessen their propensity to accept employment abroad or to lengthen their stay in another Member State. Our research indicates that foreign staff are perceived to have higher levels of staff turnover than nationals, which means that employers are also less likely to hire them.

The tourism industry does, however, make use of some general schemes to support mobility, most notably the EURES system. Most of the jobs advertised through EURES are for cross-border employment, i.e. people commuting daily to work in another Member State. Far fewer jobs are advertised on a transnational basis, i.e. those seeking employees willing to relocate to take up an appointment in another Member State.

Data from EURES indicate that there were 175 233 jobs available in the database in August 1999. Of these, 18 187 (10.4 %) were in hotel and catering. This indicates that hotel and catering jobs are over-represented in the database, which may reflect the general difficulties employers face in filling vacancies in the sector. This may stimulate them to look abroad for staff more frequently than other industries.

Table 7. Total hotel and catering vacancies in EURES, August 1999 (vacancies by sector do not match reported totals because of differences in classification between Member States)

Function	**Number of vacancies**	**%**
General managers	77	0.4
Attendants and guides	219	1.3
Cooks and chefs	4 972	28.9
Housekeeping staff	2 863	16.6
Waiting staff	6 507	37.9
Chamber staff	2 566	14.9
	17 204	100.0

Of the EURES vacancies in August 1999, 28 410 were transnational jobs (16.2 %), a large proportion of which were in hotel and catering (20 %). This indicates that hotel and catering employers are more than likely to recruit staff on a transnational basis. Indications are that the shortage of qualified waiting and kitchen staff means that employers are more likely to look abroad for staff for these positions.

Table 8. Transnational vacancies in hotel and catering in EURES, August 1999

Function	Number of vacancies	%
General managers	19	0.3
Attendants and guides	106	1.8
Cooks and chefs	1 245	21.6
Housekeeping staff	1 003	17.4
Waiting staff	2 078	36.0
Chamber staff	1 319	22.9
	5 770	100.0

The major drawback of the EURES data is that it only reports vacancies offered on an international basis. There are no data available on whether these vacancies are eventually filled by local people or by nationals of another Member State.

The EURES system does therefore appear to be used by the tourism sector, but the lack of data on uptake means that its effectiveness cannot be determined.

A survey of commercial employment services present on the Internet, indicated that very few jobs in the tourism sector are being advertised through these channels. Of the 28 000 jobs listed by Job Site, for example, no specific listings for tourism or hospitality were present in August 1999. A similar situation was found on the Top Jobs site, which also advertises international vacancies. Apart from one position listed for the car rental company Avis, tourism companies were absent from the listings.

The fact that qualifications are relatively unimportant in the tourism sector means that pressure to develop harmonised European standards is also not great. Where moves are being made to develop common qualifications, these are usually motivated by a desire to professionalise the sector, rather than being aimed at labour mobility. This means that a single European approach to qualifications in the tourism sector is unlikely to be successful.

The study of the tourism sector indicates that the level of labour mobility is likely to increase in future. Most employers are keen to recruit staff from abroad providing they have the right qualifications and experience. A better flow of information about vacancies via the Internet is

likely to help stimulate this trend, particularly at higher occupational levels. There is already evidence that this is happening in some areas.

As skill levels increase in the tourism industry, the need for labour mobility will also increase. This is particularly likely to affect the use of information technology in tourism. There is likely to be a levering process as far as the proportion of foreign workers in the tourism sector is concerned. Liberalisation of the labour market in southern Europe in particular could cause a significant increase in employment of foreign workers. If the majority of tourism jobs remain unskilled, however, there is a danger that more workers will be sucked into the tourism sector from outside the EU.

4.3.2. The chemical industry

Some of the 14 companies studied within the chemical industry have a policy of favouring local or national recruitment over international, for 'patriotic' reasons, but most emphasised that all jobs are 'in theory' open to foreign nationals from all Member States. However, in practice, most staff are recruited locally, some nationally and few internationally. The main reason for this is cost, and the generally healthy flow of skills at local and national levels.

Companies divide into two broad groups in terms of their recruitment practices: those who recruit locally wherever possible and meet most skill requirements through this strategy, but using national recruitment for more senior positions, particularly research and development and senior sales, and those who recruit locally for production staff and for routine white-collar positions, but more widely for research and development, sales and marketing and management positions. National-level recruitment is commonly practised, alongside international recruitment for scientific researchers and other specialists.

It is common practice in the industry to recruit or promote internally. It is not usual for companies to recruit production staff, such as process operators, ready-trained and qualified, they prefer to train new employees in the company's own processes, practices and 'culture'. There is therefore little or no cross-border recruitment of production staff.

It is also common practice among employers in the industry to recruit from the family and friends of current employees. This is often a response to recruitment difficulties, although it is bad practice in terms of equal opportunities. This practice cannot be used, however, to recruit more highly skilled recruits, whom companies must attract from a wider area.

The important exception to this approach is the recruitment of research staff. Particularly at senior level, these are frequently recruited from other Member States, including from universities and research institutes. This confirms the findings of other research on mobility which emphasises higher mobility rates among highly skilled professionals.

Almost all companies interviewed said they often would not know whether an applicant's qualifications are equivalent to the national qualification required for the job and relied largely

on internal information sources. They did not use the lists of equivalent qualifications compiled by the European Communities Chemistry Council (ECCC). The problem of establishing equivalents did not arise often, because, with the exception of research, companies received few applications from citizens of other Member States.

Although companies receive relatively few applications from citizens of other Member States, this may increase in future. Employers said they would be more confident about recruiting across borders if equivalent qualifications were known and understood. At the same time, they did not feel that common qualification standards were necessary. It may therefore be sufficient to promote greater knowledge and use of current lists of equivalent qualifications, such as the ECCC list. This endorses the European Commission's approach that emphasises transparency rather than direct comparison of qualifications.

Recent literature on labour mobility identifies an increasing trend towards short-term stays rather than permanent moves between Member States. This has been identified particularly with regard to highly skilled employees. Our research suggests that this is true of the chemicals industry, where transfer is far more commonly practised than cross-border recruitment.

Management is the main group involved in staff transfers. In some cases these are managers or technical experts in specialist areas, transferred for a short period to acquire or impart expertise. Both international recruits and mobile employees were reported to be generally less than 35 years old and male, reflecting gender imbalance in the senior management posts involved.

There is evidence that company recruitment practices are taking place as a result of Internet advertising. Many of the case study companies advertise career opportunities and vacant posts on their company Internet site and welcome speculative applications and curricula vitae. This, alongside other information sources, such as EURES, is likely to lead to increased applications across Member States. In the chemicals industry this is most likely to affect the recruitment of research staff.

Within Europe, competition for highly skilled staff is expected to intensify as multinational corporations seek to recruit staff from the same pool. Therefore, a number of writers predict increased recruitment from peripheral areas of Europe or from less developed countries outside Europe. This may affect the practices of the European chemicals industry. However, there has been little research on employers' practices in relation to recruitment of highly skilled employees, and it is likely that these vary greatly between industries. Further research is needed to identify the variety of strategies adopted by particular industries for specific occupations, and the place of international recruitment.

Companies were asked if cross-border movement and recruitment would increase if measures were taken to improve recognition of qualifications between Member States. Many companies did not think this would happen because cross-border recruitment is limited by other factors. These include, for companies, costs, language and differences in 'culture' (for example,

management style), a relatively healthy supply of skills at local and national levels and the importance of experience rather than formal qualifications. For individual employees important factors are housing, pensions, education systems and 'cultural integration.'

There is also some evidence that in some industries or occupations, immobility may have particular benefits because it allows for local-specific knowledge and skills to be accumulated. Companies in the chemicals industry strongly value accumulated experience in company practices, which may discourage mobility among certain employees, for example process operators. However, this is not true of all occupations in the industry and a stay abroad is increasingly considered desirable and seen by companies as a stage in a successful career.

There is a little, but growing, literature on employer's practices towards recruitment and transfer across Member States. This has highlighted three issues of relevance to the research presented here: the more frequent use of cross-border transfer, rather than recruitment of new staff from across borders; the greater involvement of highly skilled professionals in transfer and cross-border recruitment; and the role of technology. Our research confirms the findings of existing research on the importance of temporary transfer over recruitment in terms of numbers of employees involved. It also confirms findings on the greater mobility of highly skilled and professional staff. However, it does not support recent arguments that technology is dispensing with the need for mobility ([20]). There is some evidence that improved communication is leading to more mobility, particularly short-term stays. Increased international advertising of jobs, through the Internet may encourage job seekers to apply for positions in other Member States.

Since competition for highly skilled staff is expected to intensify as multinational corporations seek to recruit staff from the same pool and may lead to higher levels of international recruitment, our findings suggest that in the chemicals industry this will largely involve highly skilled professionals, for example senior production managers and scientific researchers. The industry is unlikely to change its preference for local recruits and internal promotion for more junior posts, at least in the short term.

Employers have little knowledge of the qualifications systems of other Member States and this should be a matter of some concern since it could lead to discrimination in recruitment. Information on broadly equivalent qualifications should therefore be more easily available.

Our research has not looked at mobility from the perspective of employees, indeed this is a major gap in existing research. We know little about who these individuals are, their motives and experiences. On the issue of qualifications, we do not know how they present their 'foreign' qualifications to prospective employers and whether they experience difficulty in having these recognised and accepted as equivalent to national qualifications.

([20]) Salt et al, 1993; Straubhaar and Wolter, 1996.

There is a need for research on the general population in Europe on their attitudes towards mobility to other Member States, on the factors relevant to their decision and the role of qualifications. It is possible that many citizens are unaware of their right to free movement, or believe that their qualifications will not be recognised. It is important that these potential obstacles to mobility are known to ensure that future policy measures are appropriate and effective.

4.3.3. The health sector

The picture given of the health sector is basically a positive one. The main political and legal instruments (the sectoral and general directives) seem to work and health sector professionals are the main users of these instruments. There is also evidence that the use of compensation requirements is declining, indicating that competent authorities are becoming increasingly familiar with qualifications awarded elsewhere and therefore see less need for them.

In practice, however, there are problems. In the health sector study two minor experiments were launched. One was a letter sent to all coordinators of the general directives asking for procedures to be followed by nurses, doctors and veterinarians wishing to have their qualifications recognised. The other was an attempt to search for information on the Internet.

Six countries never responded to the letter. This result is troubling, since an individual seeking information on being able to move would clearly have been even less successful. Substantial pressure was applied on the national contact points to produce an answer, but only in very rare cases would private individuals have applied the same pressure or received any result. While the system of contact points/national coordinators is a logical and well-intended administrative notion, resources and attitudes tend partly to work in contradiction.

To test how easy it was to get access to information on transparency and recognition of qualifications, we approached the Internet. This turned out to be a long and arduous task. Key words turned out to be not so key and seemed to be based on internal administrative language. It was extremely difficult to find any useful information. We spent hours and weeks searching the Internet. The amount of information available is substantial but there is no single entry point where an ordinary citizen, not trained in this particular field, could enter. It cannot be taken for granted that individuals know the structure of European or national administrations or that they know the exact directives or legal acts covering this area. The important lesson to be learned from our experience with the Internet (and other information sources) is that they have to be made user-friendly. How this is going to be achieved deserves (and requires) far more attention in the future. One single entry point, linking together the main information on labour market issues (EURES), mobility issues (the various DGs of the Commission, Cedefop, etc.) and transparency/recognition issues should be seriously considered. This entry point should then be given a 'label' making it possible for individuals to orient themselves.

To conclude and taking into account the relatively small number of people actually transferring their qualifications from one country to another, there seems to be great potential for further initiatives and support:

(a) basic information on the availability of jobs can be improved. The EURES system is a good instrument in this context, our experience indicates that only a small percentage of jobs (in the health sector) announced nationally are announced by EURES;

(b) from a user's point of view, it is next to impossible to get in contact with the support systems established as a result of the directives. While the system is logically and well constructed from a 'systems point of view,' it tends to be impossible to access from a user's point of view;

(c) attitudes to migrants in general and to the transfer of qualifications in particular tend in some cases to counteract the intentions expressed by the legal and political initiatives at Community level. This is a problem faced by the individual user, and there are no measures in place to assist.

The main conclusion is, therefore, that a number of positive steps have been taken at legal and political levels, but the full effect of these measures relies on the availability of information and support structures aimed at the individual migrant, not at bureaucracies or politicians.

5. Conclusions

Current situation

Generally speaking, the right to free movement has so far not led to large-scale exchange of workers between Member States in the European Union. In spite of considerable differences between the countries and regions with regard to income and unemployment rates, labour migration has still remained at a lower level than expected. The number of EU national residents in another Member State is approximately 5.5 million out of 370 million, i.e. 1.5 % of the population. A total of 12.5 million third-country nationals reside within the EU. Approximately 5 % of the population living inside the EU are 'foreigners.' These figures correspond to a low average of mobility per year - less than 1 %. Even though these figures are low, it should be stressed that they correspond to a lot of individuals and do not reflect variations between different parts of the economy. The tourism sector for example, represents a sector where mobility is relatively high and probably growing. An open question is whether Europe is facing growth in mobility as a consequence of the integration process in progress.

Lack of information

One of the main remarkable conclusions to be drawn from the research summarised in this report is that there is a serious lack of information on labour force mobility within Europe. The existing figures are not up-to-date and refer to a general level. From our point of view this does not fit well with the emphasis placed on mobility issues at political level and the current discourse on a European labour market. A conclusion seems to be that measures and goals introduced are not based on facts and figures, because there are no facts and figures available except at a general level. A consequence could be low legitimacy for policy making and measures which are too general to match the variations and complexity of the issue. A better and more detailed picture of how mobility patterns really look at different levels and in different contexts could increase the possibility of finding optimal solutions to problems and measures to promote mobility.

Pattern of mobility

The results indicate a low and stable mobility rate within the sectors studied with the possible exception of the tourism industry. There is also evidence that highly qualified and relatively young males dominate the small group of European citizens crossing borders to work. The tourism sector, though, seems to add a group of young people willing to take low-skilled and low-paid jobs. In light of this, one might ask whether current mobility within the EU/EEA also has a social 'bias,' and adds to differences more than it adds to greater social cohesion. Unfortunately, there are few studies in the field, making it difficult to see more detailed trends and patterns of importance for the future. We know that mobility is promoted at political level, but we know very little of the actual pattern of European labour force mobility except that it seems to be a minor phenomenon. Comparisons are often made with the situation in the United States where mobility figures are higher, but where the language 'problem' has another

dimension. Accordingly, it is more or less unrealistic to expect mobility to increase quickly to a US level. One potential push factor could be the results from European programmes such as the Leonardo da Vinci programme. An important and major part of Leonardo is devoted to mobility in general and to student mobility in particular (albeit in recognition that this particular mobility measure only reaches approximately one in every thousand students in Europe involved in vocational education and training annually.)

A new pattern?

Traditionally, migration flows are strongly determined by push and pull factors such as different levels of income between home country and the immigration country. Economic differences between EU countries are no longer sufficient to give rise to migration on a massive scale. There is anecdotal evidence that most moves within the Community are made for personal reasons, for example marriage, periods of study or for short periods to gain or share experiences. European employees have so far preferred (and afforded) to stay unemployed at a certain location waiting for a job instead of moving to a foreign country. This reflects the lessons learned from the Nordic experience; the large majority of people want to live, work and stay immobile where they have roots. But as history has shown, given the right conditions, people may actually look upon migration as a positive alternative. Right conditions could be the 'new' more flexible options that seem to be growing. This requires, however, that the political, legal and administrative systems put in place to support such movements are improved and perfected. A lesson learned from the research reported here is that there are still obstacles to be removed even if, as is the case of the health sector, there are proper legal measures in place. The transparency approach to removing obstacles to mobility seems promising and is supported by the results of the research. The cases of Ireland and Portugal may be pointed out as examples where economic and technological advances (thanks to the European structural Funds) have been accompanied by a reverse in migration flow.

Current information policies and practices in the Community seem to be too unsystematic to release the full potential of mobility. While the role of contact points and coordinators responsible for providing information on the application of the directives is an important one, their ability to react to direct questions from users seems to be less developed. While fulfilling their role at an administrative level (as liaisons between Member States and the European Commission) and having the task to ensure uniform application of the directive to all professions concerned, actual contact with the coordinators is far more difficult than expected.

Promote mobility

This highlights the importance of upgrading information, especially websites, which do not automatically upgrade themselves. Some sort of quality assurance should be built into the systems, making sure that information is updated on a regular basis and that coordination between relevant authorities takes place. The quality of these support systems also depends on resources being made available; satisfactory services can only be provided if tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined and sufficient amounts of time and money are made available to solve them. Even more crucial is the need to develop and define one single entry-

point for access to this kind of information. Different sources should be linked together and structured at this point, making it possible for individuals without any specialised knowledge or prior experience to find relevant information. It is also important to have printed material giving simple and accurate contact information since there is a large section of the population without access to the Internet, making it dangerous to concentrate all efforts on this instrument alone.

Further work

Surprisingly enough, relatively little systematic research has been done on attitudes towards foreign qualifications and labour. Anecdotal evidence shows that attitudes and idiosyncrasies sometimes mean more than formal political and legal decisions. In many cases, employers will choose a national before a foreigner without even having a look at the qualifications in question. In cases where we do not speak about direct discrimination (which clearly occurs), the problem of interpreting documents and making sense of foreign diplomas leads to such practices. The suggestion by the 'European forum on transparency' (February 2000) to introduce a common European format for supplements to certificates could contribute positively in this context. The same can be said of the diploma supplement for higher education. Both initiatives try to introduce a standardised way of presenting qualifications making it easier for employers to make a choice between available candidates, both nationals and foreigners, using objective criteria.

So, even if the overall picture shown by the research reported here seems cloudy, the good news is that there is light ahead. Many legal frameworks promoting mobility are in place at Community level and, thanks to European programmes, young people are moving to a greater extent than before. Political support is increasing and there is growing discussion at sector level on the need for common European qualification standards and certificates. This is where opportunity lies for the Leonardo da Vinci programme to uncover a wide variety of solutions. Despite the fact that no specific overview exists on the state of play at sector level, there are strong signals of a waking interest in increased transparency of vocational qualifications all over Europe.

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Mobility and transparency of vocational qualifications: An overview of studies on the tourism, chemical and healthcare sectors in Europe

Sten Pettersson
Greg Richards
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It is hoped the results will be used in different contexts and taken as a point of departure for further and deeper study of the relation between mobility and prerequisites for mobility.

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